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Authors

Wilson, Samuel T
Valle, Daniela A
Robidart, Julie C
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1 Dissolved hydrogen and nitrogen fixation in the oligotrophic North Pacific Subtropical
2 Gyre

3

4 Samuel T. Wilson*^{1,2}, Daniela A. del Valle^{1,2}, Julie C. Robidart^{2,3}, Jonathan P. Zehr^{2,3}
5 and David M. Karl^{1,2}

6

7 ¹ Department of Oceanography, School of Ocean and Earth Science and Technology,
8 University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

9 ² Center for Microbial Oceanography: Research and Education, University of Hawaii,
10 1950 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822

11 ³ Ocean Sciences, University of California, Santa Cruz, California 95064

12

13 *corresponding author

14 Tel: 808-956-0565; Fax: 808-956-0581. Email: stwilson@hawaii.edu

15

16

17 **Summary**

18 The production of hydrogen (H₂) is an inherent component of the biological dinitrogen
19 (N₂) fixation process with the theoretical stoichiometry predicting an equimolar
20 production of H₂ for every mole of N₂ fixed. However, while the stoichiometry of N₂
21 fixation can be evaluated in high biomass cultures of diazotrophs, conducting the relevant
22 measurements for a field population is more complex. Independent measurements of N₂
23 fixation, H₂ consumption, and dissolved H₂ concentrations were performed on surface
24 water samples collected in the oligotrophic North Pacific Ocean to constrain the cycling
25 of H₂ associated with N₂ fixation. The quantity of H₂ consumed by microbial oxidation
26 was equal to 1-7% of ethylene produced during the acetylene reduction assay and to 11-
27 63% of ¹⁵N₂ assimilation. Varying abundance of *Crocospaera* and *Trichodesmium* as
28 revealed by *nifH* gene abundance broadly corresponded with diel changes observed in
29 both N₂ fixation and H₂ oxidation. However no corresponding changes were observed in
30 the dissolved H₂ concentrations which remained consistently supersaturated (147–560%)
31 relative to atmospheric equilibrium. The results from this field study allow the efficiency
32 of H₂ cycling by natural populations of diazotrophs to be compared to their cultured
33 representatives. The findings indicate that the extent to which dissolved H₂
34 concentrations correspond to N₂ fixation in the open ocean may depend less upon the
35 species of diazotrophs present in the water column and more upon relevant environmental
36 parameters *e.g.* light intensity or the presence of other H₂-metabolizing microorganisms.

37

38 **Introduction**

39 In the surface waters of the tropical and subtropical open ocean, dissolved H₂
40 concentrations typically range from 1–3 nmol l⁻¹, equivalent to 300–900%
41 supersaturation relative to atmospheric equilibrium (Herr *et al.*, 1984; Conrad and Seiler,
42 1988; Moore *et al.*, 2009). The magnitude of the dissolved H₂ pool is determined by the
43 ‘oceanic H₂ cycle’ which reflects the balance between production and consumption
44 processes. As such, the main source of H₂ is considered to be biological dinitrogen (N₂)
45 fixation (Scranton *et al.*, 1987; Herr *et al.*, 1984; Moore *et al.*, 2009) whereby N₂ is
46 reduced to ammonia (NH₃), as shown in Equation 1:



48 where ADP and ATP are adenosine-5'-diphosphate and adenosine-5'-triphosphate
49 respectively, H⁺ is hydrogen ion, e⁻ is electron, and Pi is inorganic phosphorus (Simpson
50 and Burris 1984).

51 While N₂ fixation is more commonly measured than H₂ production, it is unwise to use the
52 theoretical stoichiometry predicted in Eq. 1 to provide an estimate of H₂ production
53 associated with nitrogenase activity. This is due to several inherent issues associated
54 with H₂ cycling linked to N₂ fixation, as listed below:

55 (i) Measurements of H₂ production alongside measurements of N₂ fixation are always
56 less than the equimolar stoichiometry predicted in Equation 1 (Schubert and Evans, 1976;
57 Wilson *et al.*, 2010). This is because all diazotrophs contain uptake hydrogenases that re-
58 assimilate a variable portion of H₂ released during N₂ fixation to conserve energy (Burns
59 and Hardy, 1975, Tamgnini *et al.*, 2007).

60 (ii) Rates of net H₂ production by diazotrophs appear to be highly species-specific.
61 Laboratory-maintained cultures of two diazotrophs, *Crocospaera* and *Trichodesmium*
62 produce H₂ at approximately 1 and 25% of their respective rates of N₂ fixation, as
63 measured by the acetylene reduction (AR) assay (Wilson *et al.* 2010). The comparatively
64 high rates of net H₂ production by *Trichodesmium* are a consequence of the cells fixing
65 N₂ during the day-time as the supply of photosynthetically-derived energy and reductant
66 decreases the need to re-assimilate the H₂ as an energy source, resulting in an increase of
67 net H₂ production (Wilson *et al.*, 2012b). By comparison, *Crocospaera* fixes N₂ during
68 the dark period restricting the supply of cellular energy to nitrogenase from the
69 respiration of photosynthetically-fixed carbon (Waterbury *et al.*, 1988; Berman-Frank *et*
70 *al.*, 2007). This causes a greater demand for the energy and reductant produced from
71 oxidizing H₂ and therefore decreases the net H₂ production (Wilson *et al.*, 2010).

72 (iii) Field measurements of N₂ fixation can be conducted using the ¹⁵N₂ assimilation
73 technique or the AR assay. The ¹⁵N₂ tracer technique is considered to be a measure of net
74 N₂ fixation (Montoya *et al.*, 1996; Mulholland *et al.*, 2004). The AR assay measures total
75 nitrogenase activity by quantifying the reduction of acetylene (C₂H₂) to ethylene (C₂H₄)
76 and therefore represents an indirect assay of N₂ fixation (Burris, 1975). Because H₂
77 production would be expected to scale on gross N₂ fixation (Eq. 1), the AR assay could
78 represent a better correlative measurement to comparing N₂ fixation and H₂ cycling.

79 Due to the issues listed above, to define the role of N₂ fixation in the global H₂ cycle
80 (*e.g.* Price *et al.*, 2007) it is imperative to conduct field measurements of both N₂ fixation
81 and H₂ production. In this study, simultaneous measurements of N₂ fixation, biological
82 H₂ consumption, and dissolved H₂ concentrations were conducted in the surface waters of

83 the open ocean where diazotrophs are present. Results are presented of the diazotrophic
84 community composition (as measured by *nifH* gene abundance and diversity), rates of net
85 and gross N₂ fixation (as measured by ¹⁵N₂ tracer assimilation and AR assay,
86 respectively), H₂ concentrations, and H₂ oxidation rates (using ³H₂ as a tracer).
87 Quantitative interpretation of the field data is aided by the recent measurement of net H₂
88 production and N₂ fixation in laboratory cultures of diazotrophs to infer the relative
89 contribution of the representative marine N₂ fixing microorganisms to the oceanic H₂
90 cycle.

91

92 **Results and discussion**

93 *Sampling overview*

94 The oceanographic cruise was located approximately 250 km north of Oahu, Hawaii in
95 the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (NPSG) and occurred between 6 and 21 September
96 2011. The sampling stations were occupied along north-western edge of an anticyclonic
97 eddy spanning a total distance of 90 km and the subsequent westward section of the
98 cruise track which spanned 80 km. Vertical profiles of dissolved H₂ were conducted
99 daily alongside biogeochemical and hydrographic measurements. Biological rate
100 measurements of N₂ fixation and H₂ consumption were conducted at 3 sampling stations:
101 Station (Stn) 3, 7, and 13 which were sampled on the 7, 9, and 18 September 2011,
102 respectively. Descriptions of the hydrographic conditions and biogeochemical properties
103 of the water column are available in the accompanying Supplementary Information and
104 also online at <http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu/cmorediolincs/biolincs.html>.

105

106 *Dissolved H₂ concentrations*

107 Dissolved H₂ concentrations were super-saturated with respect to atmospheric
108 equilibrium in the upper 75 m of the water column (Fig. 1). Overall, dissolved H₂
109 concentrations in the surface mixed layer (0–45 m) ranged from 0.5–1.9 nmol l⁻¹, with an
110 average concentration of 0.83 nmol l⁻¹, equivalent to 250% supersaturation. On four
111 separate occasions the concentrations of dissolved H₂ in the mixed layer exceeded 1 nmol
112 l⁻¹ (Fig. 1). The concentrations of H₂ measured in surface seawater during this cruise are
113 consistent with measurements in other marine environments (e.g. the Atlantic,
114 Mediterranean, and Pacific Ocean) revealing a persistent supersaturation of dissolved H₂
115 in the near-surface seawater (Conrad and Seiler 1988, Herr *et al.*, 1984, Moore *et al.*,
116 2009, Scranton *et al.*, 1982). At depths exceeding 75 m a progressive depletion in H₂
117 concentrations was observed with values approaching undersaturation with respect to
118 atmospheric equilibrium by a depth of 100 m. Vertical profiles of N₂ fixation in the
119 NPSG measured on previous occasions (Church *et al.*, 2009, Grabowski *et al.*, 2008)
120 similarly show a decrease at 75 m, providing indirect evidence that the dissolved H₂ is
121 derived from nitrogenase activity.

122

123 *N₂ fixation*

124 N₂ fixation rate measurements, determined by both the ¹⁵N₂ tracer assimilation and the
125 AR assay, were conducted at Stn 3, 7 and 13. The overall temporal pattern of N₂ fixation
126 changed between the stations from an initial prevalence during the night-time, to a
127 subsequent dominance during the day-time. Specifically, rates of ¹⁵N₂ assimilation
128 during the night-time (0.22 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹) exceeded the day-time (0.08 nmol l⁻¹ h⁻¹) at Stn 3

129 (Fig. 2A). In contrast, at Stn 13, rates of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation in whole seawater were
130 highest ($0.26 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) during the day-time, compared to the rates during the night-
131 time ($0.04 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2C). No significant difference was observed between the
132 day-time and night-time measurements of N_2 fixation at Stn 7. At all sampling stations,
133 the rate of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation in whole seawater samples exceeded the comparative rates in
134 the accompanying $<10 \mu\text{m}$ size fractionated seawater samples. Comparison of the <10
135 μm size fraction across the three stations reveals low variability in the rate of $^{15}\text{N}_2$
136 assimilation ($0.04\text{--}0.06 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) during the day-time. In contrast, night-time rates of
137 $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation for the $<10 \mu\text{m}$ size fraction varied by an order of magnitude,
138 decreasing from $0.14 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at Stn 3, to $0.01 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ at Stn 13 (Fig. 2A-C).

139 AR was measured on whole seawater samples and a significant increase in C_2H_4
140 concentrations was always detected during the 3–4 h incubations (Fig. 2D-F). The rates
141 of C_2H_4 production support the $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation measurements with higher rates during
142 the night-time ($2.9 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to the day-time ($1.8 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) at Stn 3.
143 Furthermore, at Stn 13, the diel pattern of C_2H_4 production changed with day-time (3.3
144 $\text{nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) exceeding night-time ($0.4 \text{ nmol l}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2F). Overall, the ratio of C_2H_4 to
145 $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation varied from 9–22 which exceeds the theoretical ratio of 3:1 (Capone
146 1993) by 3–7 fold. It should be noted that the theoretical ratio of 3:1 is based on the
147 difference between 2 hydrogen ions required to reduce C_2H_2 to C_2H_4 and 6 hydrogen ions
148 needed to reduce N_2 to 2NH_3 . The reasons for the discrepancies between the theoretical
149 and observed ratios have previously been discussed (*e.g.* Graham *et al.*, 1980) and focus
150 mainly on the excretion of N from the cell and the role of H_2 . There is insufficient data in
151 this study to contribute to this discussion, however we do note from our work and the

152 relevant literature that there is increased discrepancy in the C₂H₄: ¹⁵N₂ assimilation ratio
153 in field measurements compared to culture-based analyses. Furthermore there is a lack of
154 experimental testing on the effect of key environmental parameters on the C₂H₄: ¹⁵N₂
155 assimilation ratio *e.g.* light intensity or nutrient concentrations (Mague *et al.*, 1977).

156

157 *Diazotroph community structure*

158 Representative N₂ fixing microorganisms in the open ocean include: (i) the
159 filamentous, non-heterocystous cyanobacterium *Trichodesmium*, (ii) the heterocystous
160 cyanobacteria (*e.g.* *Richelia* and *Calothrix*) that form symbioses with eukaryotic algae,
161 and (iii) unicellular cyanobacteria including Group A (termed UCYN-A) and Group B
162 (*e.g.* *Crocospaera*) (Mague *et al.*, 1977; Carpenter and Romans 1991; Zehr *et al.*, 2001).

163 The analysis of *nifH* gene abundances revealed Group B was the most abundant
164 diazotroph for the first two sampling occasions (Stn 3 and 7), with 4.3 x 10⁵ and 1.3 x 10⁶
165 gene copies l⁻¹. At the third sampling site (Stn 13), *nifH* gene copies of Group B
166 decreased to 2.9 x 10⁴ gene copies l⁻¹, in contrast to *Trichodesmium nifH* gene copies
167 which increased to a maximum of 1.6 x 10⁶ gene copies l⁻¹ (Fig. 2). The shift from a
168 Group B-dominated to a *Trichodesmium*-dominated diazotroph community between Stn
169 3 and 13, respectively, could help account for the change in the pattern of N₂ fixation.

170 The unicellular *Crocospaera* fixes N₂ in the dark and rates of N₂ fixation were highest
171 during the night-time when *Crocospaera* gene copies were most abundant. Two other
172 groups of diazotrophs were present at lower abundances throughout the cruise; UCYN-A
173 *nifH* abundance ranged from 1.6 x 10³ to 1.9 x 10⁵ gene copies l⁻¹ and the total

174 heterocystous cyanobacterial gene copies were the lowest of all *nifH* gene groups
175 measured with a maximum abundance of 6.2×10^3 gene copies l^{-1} at Stn 13.

176

177 *Microbial consumption of H₂*

178 Biological 3H_2 oxidation was measured during the day and night-time, alongside N_2
179 fixation rate measurements at Stn 3 and 13. Overall, the rates of biological 3H_2 oxidation
180 ranged from 15 to 42 $\mu mol H_2 l^{-1} h^{-1}$ (Table 1). At Stn 3, night-time rates of biological
181 3H_2 oxidation (25 $\mu mol H_2 l^{-1} h^{-1}$) exceeded day-time rates (15 $\mu mol H_2 l^{-1} h^{-1}$) by 66%.
182 In contrast, at Stn 13 the day-time rates of biological 3H_2 oxidation (42 $\mu mol H_2 l^{-1} h^{-1}$)
183 were 68% higher than night-time (25 $\mu mol H_2 l^{-1} h^{-1}$) (Table 1). In this respect, the
184 temporal variability in biological 3H_2 oxidation rates reflect the temporal patterns
185 observed in the rate of $^{15}N_2$ assimilation and the AR assay. The measured rates of 3H_2
186 oxidation were equivalent to 11-63% of $^{15}N_2$ assimilation and 1-7% of C_2H_4 production
187 as measured by the AR assay.

188 Previous measurements of biological H_2 consumption have been reported from other
189 aquatic habitats including coastal seawater (Punshon *et al.*, 2007), shallow lakes (Conrad
190 *et al.*, 1983), and river systems (Paerl 1982). These previous studies have revealed H_2
191 turnover times ranging from <1 h in a eutrophic shallow lake (Conrad *et al.*, 1983) to 2–3
192 days in high-latitude coastal seawater (Punshon *et al.*, 2007). In comparison, the H_2
193 turnover times measured in this study at two sampling stations ranged from 22–40 h
194 (Table 1).

195

196 *Estimation of the production and consumption of H₂ associated with N₂ fixation*

197 The measured rates of N₂ fixation using the AR assay at Stn 3 and 13 were used to
198 estimate the production of H₂ derived from nitrogenase (Table 2). We use laboratory-
199 derived measurements of net H₂ production by *Trichodesmium* and *Crocospaera*
200 cultures described in the Introduction to provide upper and lower boundaries for H₂
201 production. Therefore in contrast to Price *et al.* (2007) who estimated net H₂ production
202 at 55% of N₂ fixation in the marine environment, we set maximum and minimum net H₂
203 production rates at 25% and 1% of C₂H₄ production, respectively. The resulting
204 estimates of net H₂ production range from 0.004 to 0.84 nmol H₂ l⁻¹ h⁻¹ in the upper water
205 column. Furthermore, the calculations indicate that N₂ fixation can replenish the
206 dissolved H₂ pool in as little as 1 h and extending up to 34 hrs, with the exception of 19
207 September during the night time which has an excessively long upper estimate of 245 h
208 (Table 2).

209 The estimates of net H₂ production in surface seawater as listed in Table 2 can be
210 compared with the biological ³H₂ oxidation measurements which were conducted on the
211 same seawater samples (Table 1). The rates of ³H₂ oxidation were equivalent to 0.8 – 6.6
212 % of the AR assay (Table 2) indicating biological consumption was equivalent to the
213 lower end of estimated rates of net H₂ production *i.e.* comparable to rates of net H₂
214 production by *Crocospaera*. This suggests that concentrations of dissolved H₂ may
215 increase in the presence of *Trichodesmium* and stimulate the diel cycles of H₂ in surface
216 seawater as observed by Herr *et al.* (1984) in the South Atlantic. However in this study,
217 the increase in *Trichodesmium* abundance was not matched by an increase in net H₂
218 concentrations (Fig. 1) suggesting that field populations of *Trichodesmium* may re-
219 assimilate more of the H₂ produced via nitrogenase compared to their cultured counter-

220 parts and are therefore more energetically efficient. Alternatively, other sinks of H₂ in
221 the upper ocean may contribute to the loss of dissolved H₂ and these are considered in the
222 next section.

223

224 *H₂ cycling in the open ocean*

225 The oceanic H₂ cycle depends not only on biological production and consumption as
226 discussed with reference to diazotrophs, but also physical forcing mechanisms. The
227 physical processes can be considered with respect to the sink terms for H₂, comparing
228 estimates of air-sea gas exchange and downwards diffusion with biological oxidation.
229 The downward diffusion of H₂ can be estimated from the concentration gradient between
230 depths of 45 and 75 m, using the vertical eddy diffusion coefficient reported by Ledwell
231 *et al.* (1993) (Table 3). The flux of H₂ to the atmosphere can be estimated according to
232 Equation 2, where S is the Bunsen solubility coefficient (Wiesenburg and Guinasso,
233 1979), Δp is the difference in partial pressure (p) between the atmosphere and ocean, and
234 k is the transfer velocity. An atmospheric H₂ concentration of 0.53 ppmv was used in the
235 flux calculations (Novelli *et al.*, 1999). The transfer velocity (k) was calculated
236 according to Wanninkhof (1992) (Equation 3) where U is the wind speed (m sec⁻¹)
237 normalized to 10 m above the sea surface and Sc represents the Schmidt number for H₂ at
238 *in situ* seawater temperature and salinity (Jähne *et al.*, 1987).

239 (2) $F = k \cdot S \cdot \Delta p$

240 (3) $k = 0.31 U^2 (Sc/660)^{-0.5}$

241 To obtain depth-integrated estimates of H₂ consumption we used historical
242 measurements of N₂ fixation profiles at Stn ALOHA (HOT cruises #202-213) to calculate

243 the relationship between N₂ fixation measurements at 25 m and 0-45 m depth integrated
244 values ($y=46.12x + 23.8$, $r^2=0.82$). The conversion factor was applied to the rates of N₂
245 fixation (Fig.1) using the percentage of AR assay and ¹⁵N₂ assimilation (Table 1) to
246 provide a lower and upper estimate of biological H₂ consumption respectively, integrated
247 across the 0-45 m depth horizon. While there is approximately an order of magnitude
248 difference between the upper and lower estimates of biological consumption (Table 3),
249 the median values for turnover times compare favorably with the rates of H₂ consumption
250 calculated from the ³H₂ oxidation measurements for discrete seawater samples collected
251 from 25 m (Table 1). It is evident that for this time period, biological consumption and
252 downward diffusion represented the main loss pathways for dissolved H₂ in the upper
253 ocean. The estimated flux of H₂ to the atmosphere ranged from 0.03 - 0.33 μmol m⁻² h⁻¹
254 (Table 3) and should be considered a low estimate of H₂ loss to the overlying atmosphere
255 due to the predominantly low wind speeds (<5 m sec⁻¹) during the cruise.

256

257 **Conclusion**

258 During a 10 day sampling period in the NPSG, dissolved H₂ concentrations were
259 147–560% supersaturated with respect to atmospheric equilibrium. Measured rates of
260 ¹⁵N₂ assimilation and AR revealed a change in the prevalence of N₂ fixation from night-
261 time to day-time, which was accompanied by a decrease in the abundance in Group B
262 *nifH* gene copies, and an increase in the abundance of *Trichodesmium nifH* gene copies.
263 Prior to this study it was hypothesized that varying abundance of larger, day-time N₂
264 fixing microorganisms *e.g.* *Trichodesmium* might influence the dissolved pool of H₂ in
265 surface seawater due to their relatively high rates of net H₂ production (Wilson *et al.*,

266 2010). However the absence of varying dissolved H₂ concentrations indicate that field
267 populations of *Trichodesmium* may be more efficient at recycling H₂ compared to
268 laboratory cultures. Biological H₂ oxidation measurements in seawater sampled from 25
269 m depth indicate that H₂ production needed to exceed 1-6% of C₂H₄ production to cause
270 an increase in the ambient pool of dissolved H₂ (Table 1). This is considerably lower
271 than in laboratory-maintained *Trichodesmium* cultures where the rate of net H₂
272 production was equivalent to 25% of C₂H₄ production (Wilson *et al.*, 2012b). Using
273 either the AR assay or the ¹⁵N₂ assimilation technique caused approximately 1 order of
274 magnitude variability when calculating the efficiency of H₂ cycling. We consider the AR
275 assay to be more representative of nitrogenase activity but recognize that it is an indirect
276 measurement and not widely used in oceanographic studies on non-concentrated seawater
277 samples. Comparison of the loss mechanisms for dissolved H₂ in the upper ocean
278 indicated that biological oxidation represented the most prevalent sink compared to
279 downward diffusion and flux to the atmosphere (Table 3).

280 It should be noted that oceanic H₂ cycling is not limited to diazotrophs, and
281 opportunistic H₂-oxidizing microorganisms *e.g.* aerobic anoxygenic photosynthetic
282 bacteria and heterotrophic bacteria will also metabolize H₂. Furthermore, other sources
283 of H₂ such as photochemical degradation of dissolved organic matter (Punshon and
284 Moore 2008) and fermentation (Schropp *et al.*, 1987) should be considered when
285 considering H₂ cycling in the upper water column. Nonetheless, this study confirms that
286 wherever diazotrophs occur in the natural environment, the ecosystem becomes enriched
287 in dissolved H₂ (Conrad 1988) although the cycling of H₂ is more subtle than suggested
288 from laboratory cultures of diazotrophs.

289

290 **Method**

291 Dissolved H₂ concentrations were measured with a reduced gas analyzer (Peak
292 Laboratories, Mountain View) adapting the method of Moore *et al.* (2009). The rate of
293 H₂ consumption was quantified by measuring the production of ³H₂O from tracer
294 additions of ³H₂ as previously used in laboratory cultures of diazotrophs (Chan *et al.*,
295 1980) and environmental microbial assemblages (Paerl, 1983). To determine the rate of
296 N₂ fixation, measurements of ¹⁵N₂ assimilation and AR were carried out as described in
297 Wilson *et al.* (2012a). The *nifH* gene abundance was quantified using the methodological
298 protocols previously published by Moisander *et al.* (2010). Full descriptions of all the
299 analytical methods for measuring H₂ and N₂ fixation and also the accompanying
300 hydrographic datasets are in the Supplementary Information.

301

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420 **Tables**

421 Table 1. Rates of biological $^3\text{H}_2$ oxidation conducted on whole seawater samples
 422 collected at 25 m (the error bars represent standard deviation of replicate samples, n=3).
 423 The rate measurements are compared with the $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation and C_2H_4 production
 424 values in whole seawater (Fig. 1) to calculate the percentage of N_2 fixation accounted for
 425 by biological oxidation.

426

427 Station sampled	Water-column $^3\text{H}_2$ oxidation (pmol $\text{H}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	% of AR assay accounted for by $^3\text{H}_2$ oxidation	% of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation accounted for by $^3\text{H}_2$ oxidation	Turnover time of dissolved H_2 pool (h)
431 Stn 3 (Day)	15 ± 1	0.8	18.8	40
432 Stn 3 (Night)	25 ± 4	0.9	11.4	23
433 Stn 13 (Day)	42 ± 6	1.3	16.2	22
434 Stn 13 (Night)	25 ± 2	6.6	62.5	36

435
 436
 437 Table 2. Estimation of H_2 production in the open ocean water-column at a depth of 25 m.
 438 The minimum and maximum values are based on 1 and 25 % of C_2H_4 production.

439

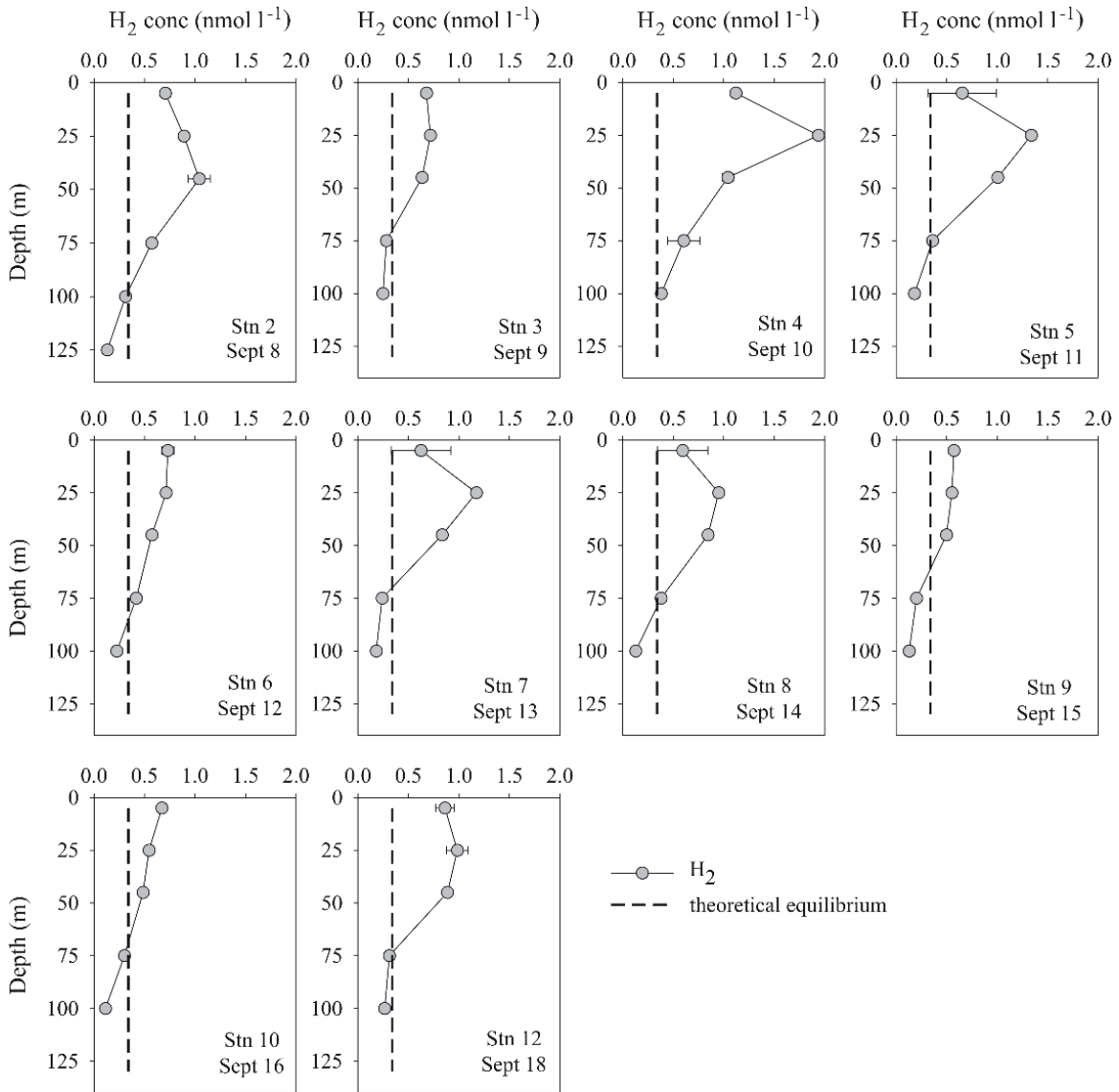
440 Date sampled	Water-column H_2 concentration (nmol $\text{H}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$)	AR assay (nmol $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	Estimated H_2 prod. (nmol $\text{H}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)		Estimated time to replenish H_2 stock (h)
			441 Min.	442 Max.	
443 Stn 3 (Day)	0.6	1.77	0.018	0.44	1 – 34
444 Stn 3 (Night)	0.6	2.87	0.029	0.72	1 – 21
445 Stn 13 (Day)	0.93	3.34	0.033	0.84	1 – 28
446 Stn 13 (Night)	0.93	0.38	0.004	0.10	10 – 245

447
 448
 449 Table 3. Estimates of sea-air gas flux, downwards diffusion, and biological consumption
 450 in comparison with depth-integrated (0-45 m) dissolved H_2 concentrations.

451

452 Date	Depth-integrated (0-45 m) H_2 concentrations ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$)	Water-column Sea-air H_2 flux ($\mu\text{mol H}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	Downward diffusion ($\mu\text{mol H}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$)	Biological consumption ($\mu\text{mol H}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$)
455 Stn 3 (Day)	30.6	0.03 - 0.06	0.42	0.03 - 5.17
456 Stn 3 (Night)	30.6	0.04 - 0.08	0.42	0.31 - 3.87
457 Stn 13 (Day)	41.0	0.11 - 0.37	0.68	0.47 - 5.80
458 Stn 13 (Night)	41.0	0.08 - 0.33	0.68	1.69 - 16.05

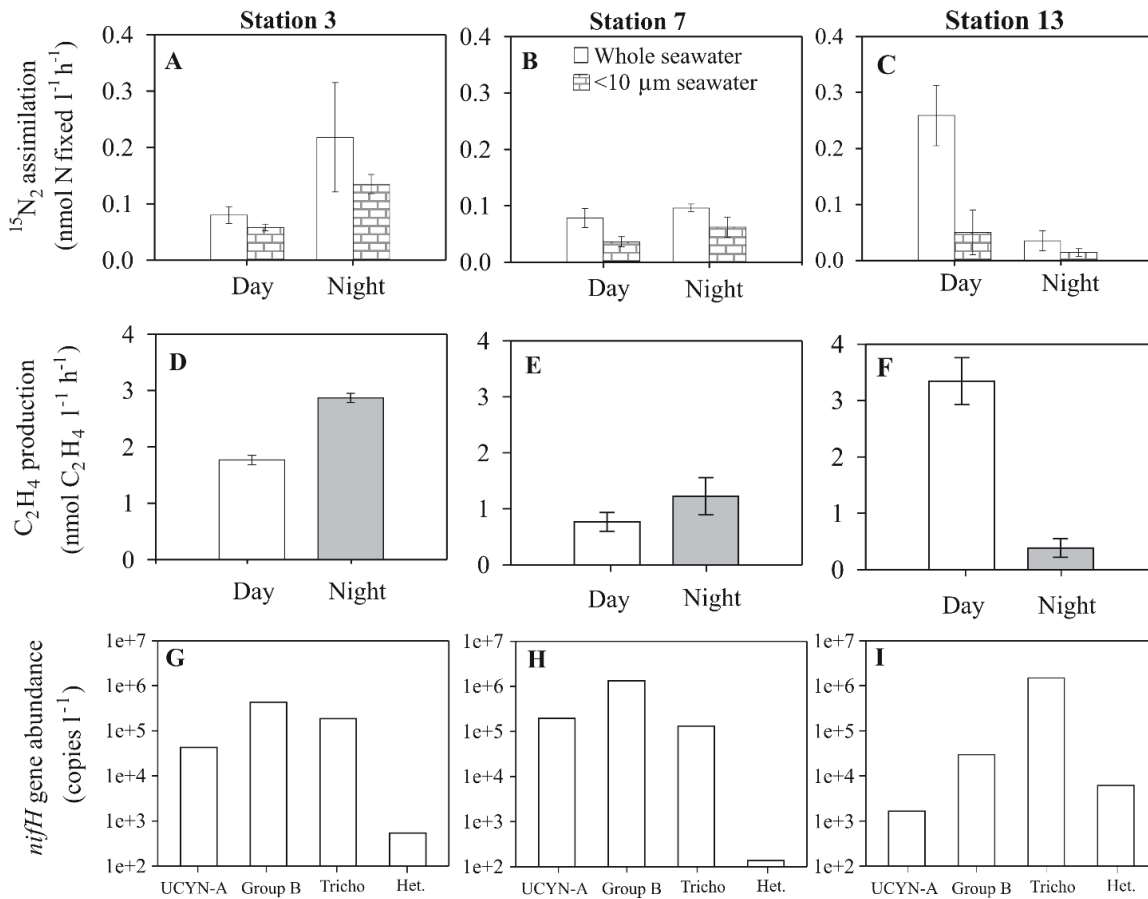
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460

461 Figure 1. Dissolved H₂ concentrations (nmol l⁻¹) between depths of 5 to 125 m in the
 462 North Pacific Ocean. For each sampling occasion, seawater samples were collected at
 463 1300 hrs. The theoretical value of dissolved H₂ concentrations in seawater at
 464 atmospheric equilibrium (with an atmospheric concentration of 0.5 ppmv) is represented
 465 by the dashed line. Error bars where shown represent standard deviation (n=3).

466



467

468

469 Figure 2. N_2 fixation rates as measured by (A-C) $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer assimilation and (D-F) the
 470 AR assay for seawater samples collected at 25 m and incubated onboard the ship during
 471 either the day or night period. Post-incubation size-fractionation was conducted for
 472 replicate $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer additions and not for the AR assay. The error bars in A-F represent
 473 standard error (n=3). The $nifH$ gene abundances collected from the same depth on the
 474 same date are shown for UCYN-A, Group B (*Crocosphaera* spp.), (Tricho)
 475 *Trichodesmium* and (het) heterocystous cyanobacteria (G-I).

476

477 **Supplementary Information**

478 *Water column structure and biogeochemical properties*

479 Shipboard sampling was conducted in the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre along a cruise
480 track which transited the edge of two anticyclonic mesoscale eddies (Fig S1). A total of
481 11 sampling stations were occupied during the cruise, spanning a total distance of
482 approximately 170 km. To characterize the upper water column, vertical profiles were
483 conducted using a Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) system coupled to a rosette
484 consisting of 24 x 12 liter Niskin-like ‘Bullister’ bottles. Oxygen (O₂) and fluorescence
485 sensors were calibrated against discrete measurements of dissolved O₂ (Carritt and
486 Carpenter, 1966) and chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) extracted and analyzed by fluorometry (Turner
487 AU-10). Seawater for determination of nutrient concentrations (NO₂⁻ + NO₃⁻, SRP, and
488 Si) was subsampled into acid washed 125 ml polyethylene bottles, capped, and then
489 stored frozen. Sample analysis was performed on land as documented in the online
490 manual for “HOT Laboratory Protocols” (<http://hahana.soest.hawaii.edu>).

491 An overview of the water-column biogeochemistry is provided by comparing vertical
492 profiles of nutrients and chl *a* from Stn 3 (24° 43.4' N, 157° 33.2' W) during the first part
493 of the transect and from Stn 13 (24° 48' N, 158° 15.2' W) during the latter part of the
494 transect (Fig. S1). At Stn 3, the maximum chl *a* concentrations were observed at a depth
495 of 115 m, compared to a depth of 105 m at Stn 13 (Fig. 2). The nutrient profiles revealed
496 a significant difference between concentrations of silicate (Si) (one-tailed t-test, P=0.04)
497 and soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) (one-tailed t-test, P=0.03) in the surface mixed
498 layer (0–45m) between Stn 3 and 13. Furthermore, the vertical profile of SRP
499 concentrations at Stn 3 revealed a distinct subsurface minimum with concentrations

500 decreasing from 0.09 μM at 25 m to 0.02 μM at 100 m. Beneath 100 m, the
501 concentrations of nitrate + nitrite ($\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NO}_2^-$), Si, and SRP increased more rapidly with
502 depth at Stn 13 where concentrations were 16, 42, and 210% higher than Stn 3 by 175 m,
503 respectively (Fig. S2).

504

505 *H₂ measurements*

506 Discrete seawater samples for measuring dissolved H₂ concentrations were collected into
507 acid-washed, glass-stoppered 300 ml Wheaton bottles. Samples were analyzed
508 immediately after collection with a total sample processing time of <2 h. To quantify H₂
509 concentrations, seawater was sub-sampled from the Wheaton bottles into a 50 ml glass
510 syringe (Perfektum) via 1/8" polyetheretherketone (PEEK) tubing. The syringe was
511 flushed twice with sample water, ensuring the last flush was free of air bubbles. A
512 custom-built syringe actuator ensured that a consistent volume of seawater (35 ml) was
513 always introduced into the syringe. Subsequently 5 ml of H₂-free (<10 parts per trillion)
514 air (Airgas) was introduced into the syringe, H₂ was extracted from the seawater using
515 headspace equilibration, and the headspace was subsequently injected into the gas
516 analyzer (described below). To prevent accidental addition of seawater following after
517 the headspace injection, the sampling inlet for the analyzer was fitted with a hydrophobic
518 syringe filter (13 mm PTFE membrane, 0.2 μm pore size).

519 We note that the samples are not preserved and therefore H₂ concentrations could
520 potentially change between the time of collection and analysis. The likelihood of this
521 occurring in oligotrophic seawater samples within < 2 h of sample collection is
522 considered minimal. The analysis of replicate samples in random order on previous

523 occasions did not result in any significant increase in the standard deviation of replicate
524 (typically 3) seawater samples. Also whilst this study shows that production of H₂ via N₂
525 fixation can replenish the dissolved H₂ pool in 1-38 h, we consider the upper estimate of
526 1 h to be high and the median value of 18 h to be more reasonable which exceeds the 1-2
527 h required for processing all samples.

528 H₂ was quantified with a reduced gas analyzer that couples a mercuric oxide (HgO)
529 bed to a reducing compound photometer (Peak Laboratories, USA). The stoichiometric
530 reduction of HgO by H₂ gas releases mercury vapor which is quantified using an
531 ultraviolet absorption photometer located immediately downstream of the HgO bed. For
532 safety purposes, the gas flow exiting the detector passes through an activated charcoal
533 mercury vapor scrubber before venting to the atmosphere. Prior to the detector, the
534 carrier gas (Ultra High Purity air) passes through two analytical columns maintained at
535 104 °C. The first column is packed with Unibeads 1S (60/80 mesh, 0.32 cm diameter and
536 41.9 cm length), and the second column with Molecular Sieve 13X (60/80 mesh, 0.32 cm
537 diameter and 206 cm length). The analytical precision based on the comparison of 4
538 samples at atmospheric equilibrium (0.3 nmol l⁻¹) was ± 2%. The analyzer was calibrated
539 using a 1 ppmv H₂ standard (Scott Marrin) that was diluted up to 100-fold using zero-H₂
540 air. The concentration of dissolved H₂ in equilibrated seawater was calculated according
541 to the Bunsen solubility coefficients provided by Wiesenburg and Guinasso (1979).

542 On two separate occasions, the rate of H₂ consumption was quantified by measuring
543 the production of ³H₂O from tracer additions (0.024–0.046 nM) of ³H₂. This method has
544 previously been used to measure ³H₂ uptake in laboratory cultures of diazotrophs (Chan
545 *et al.*, 1980) and environmental microbial assemblages (Paerl, 1983). The seawater

546 sample was collected in a 40 ml borosilicate glass vial with 2–3 times overflow and
547 sealed with no headspace using Teflon-faced butyl rubber stoppers. Tritium gas (specific
548 activity: 2 TBq/mmol; ViTrax, California) was injected into the vial in tracer quantities
549 (10 to 25 pM) and shaken before quickly venting non-dissolved $^3\text{H}_2$ in a fume hood.
550 Seawater samples amended with $^3\text{H}_2$ were incubated for 4 h in the deckboard incubators
551 at repeated intervals during the day and night periods of a diel cycle. Samples were
552 analyzed in triplicate with control samples for abiotic conversion of $^3\text{H}_2$ consisting of 0.2
553 μm filtered seawater. No activity was observed in the control samples during the
554 experiments. At the end of the incubation, a 1 ml sub-sample was removed using a
555 syringe and injected into a scintillation vial containing scintillation cocktail (Ultima Gold
556 LLT, Perkin Elmer) and counted immediately in a liquid scintillation analyzer (Tri-Carb
557 2910 TR, Perkin Elmer) to determine the total activity added to the sample. To quantify
558 the amount of transformed $^3\text{H}_2$, a separate 2 ml subsample was added to a scintillation
559 vial and purged with N_2 (100 ml min^{-1} for 3 min) in a fume hood to remove any
560 remaining $^3\text{H}_2$. A 1 ml aliquot of the sparged samples was subsequently pipetted into a
561 second scintillation vial containing liquid scintillation cocktail and counted. To account
562 for isotopic discrimination effects when calculating the rate of H_2 oxidation, we used the
563 fractionation factor reported in Soffiento *et al.* (2006). It should be noted that as
564 acknowledged by Soffiento *et al.* (2006), fractionation effects may vary between the
565 different hydrogenase enzymes *e.g.* iron(Fe)-only hydrogenase compared to the nickel-
566 iron (NiFe) hydrogenases contained by cyanobacteria (Tamagnini *et al.*, 2007). This
567 should be resolved by analyzing the fractionation factor in phylogenetically distinct

568 hydrogenase-containing microorganisms before assessing the consequences of measuring
569 $^3\text{H}_2$ oxidation in mixed microbial assemblages.

570

571 *N₂ fixation rate measurements*

572 Rates of N_2 fixation were measured using both the $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer technique and the acetylene
573 reduction (AR) assay at three sampling stations: Stn 3, 7, and 13, which were occupied on
574 the 9, 13, and 19 September, respectively. The AR assay was conducted using a reduced
575 gas analyzer, similar to the instrument described in '*H₂ measurements*', for the
576 quantification of C_2H_4 production (Wilson *et al.*, 2012). The increased sensitivity (5
577 pmol l^{-1}) provided by the reducing compound photometer compared to standard C_2H_4
578 quantification using gas chromatography-flame ionization detector (GC-FID) permits the
579 AR assay to be conducted on seawater samples with no preconcentration of the biomass.
580 Control treatments consisted of 0.2 μm filtered surface seawater, analyzed in triplicate
581 alongside the regular seawater samples. The blank to signal ratio, indicative of the
582 biological production relative to the background presence of C_2H_4 ranged from 75–82%.
583 Both samples and controls were incubated using deckboard incubators with typical
584 incubation periods of 3–4 h.

585 Alongside the AR assay the rate of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ assimilation into particulate biomass was also
586 measured in seawater samples. The $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer was added to seawater samples as ' $^{15}\text{N}_2$
587 enriched seawater', prepared onboard the ship by filtering seawater collected from 25 m
588 through a 0.2 μm filter, followed by vacuum degasification (250 mbar for 40 min). The
589 $^{15}\text{N}_2$ gas (98% purity; Isotech Laboratories, Inc.) was dissolved in the sterile, degassed
590 seawater and 50 ml of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ enriched seawater was added to the seawater samples in 4.3

591 liter polycarbonate bottles to give a final $^{15}\text{N}_2$ enrichment of 1.5 atom%. Samples were
592 incubated in the presence of $^{15}\text{N}_2$ tracer for either 11 h or 13 h corresponding to the
593 day/night-time, respectively. Seawater samples designated for night-time analysis were
594 collected at the same time as the day-time samples and incubated without tracer additions
595 until spiked with $^{15}\text{N}_2$ enriched seawater at 2000 hrs. Post-incubation, the seawater
596 samples were filtered onto combusted 25 mm glass fiber filters as both unfiltered (whole)
597 seawater and the $<10\ \mu\text{m}$ size fraction (representing UCYN-A and Group B). The
598 samples were then stored at -20°C prior to analysis on land to quantify the $^{15}\text{N}_2$
599 enrichment of particulate material using an elemental analyzer-isotope ratio mass
600 spectrometer, as described in Montoya *et al.* (1996).

601

602 *Molecular analysis of nifH*

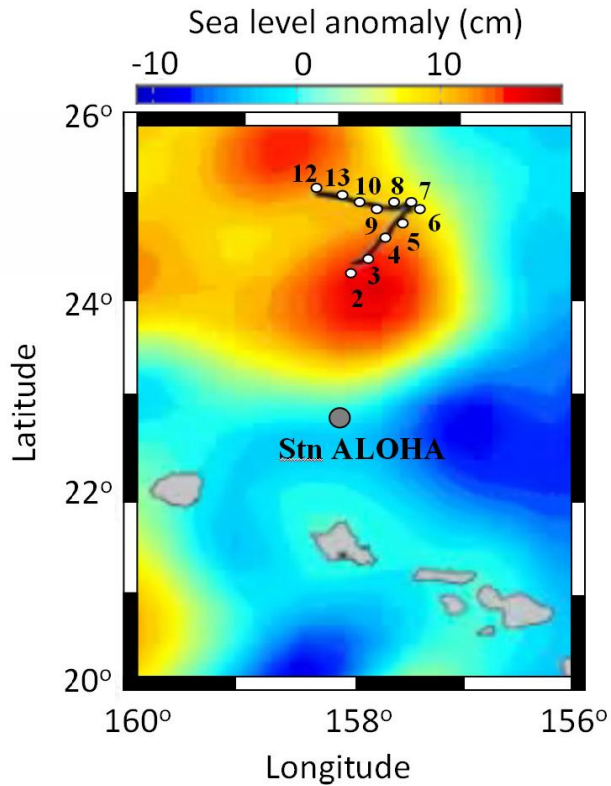
603 Discrete seawater samples (2–4 liters) were collected at 1300 hrs using the CTD-rosette
604 from a depth of 25 m, filtered using a peristaltic pump through a $0.22\ \mu\text{m}$ Sterivex filter
605 (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) and stored in liquid N_2 . A full description of
606 methodological protocols including DNA extraction and quantitative PCR analyses has
607 been previously published by Moisander *et al.* (2010).

608

609

610 References

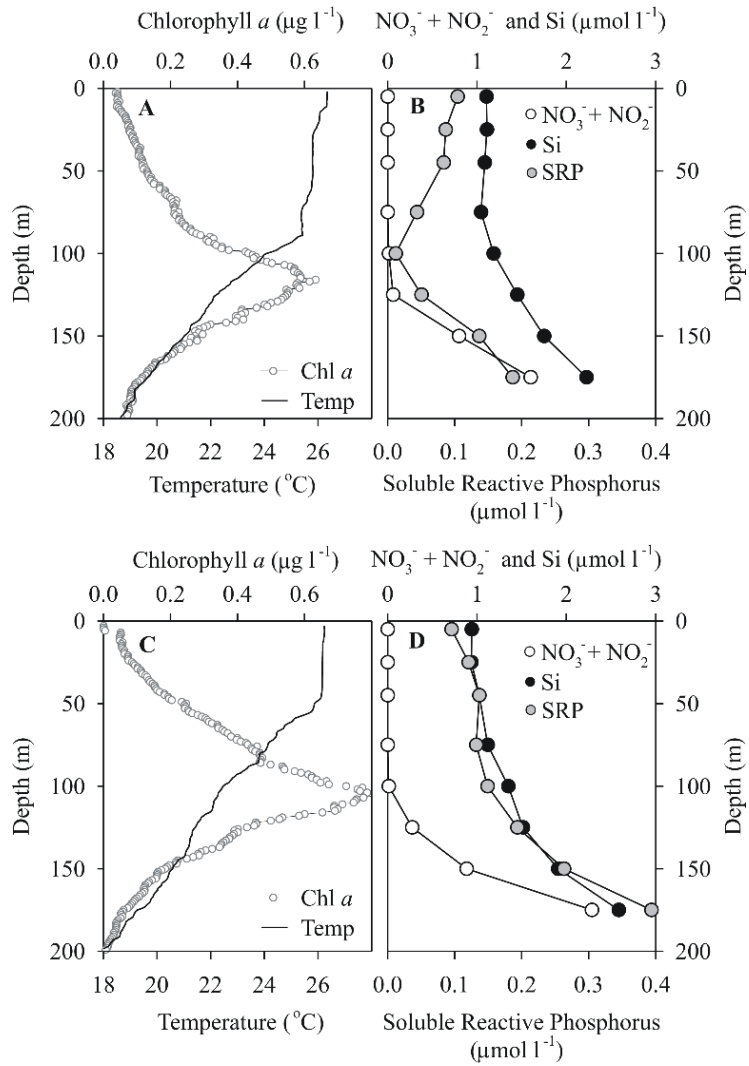
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630

631 Figure S1. 14 day composite of satellite derived SSHA 100 km north of the Hawaiian
 632 Islands in the Pacific Ocean between 7-21 September 2011 (data from Moderate
 633 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer). A summary of the cruise transect is indicated by
 634 the solid black line and the labeled white circles represent the sampling stations discussed
 635 in the text. Station ALOHA, the long term sampling station for the Hawaii Ocean Time-
 636 series (HOT) program, located at 22° 45' N, 158° W is also highlighted.

637



638

639 Figure S2. Representative water column profiles for the two sections of the cruise track,

640 (A-B) Stn 3 and (C-D) Stn 13.